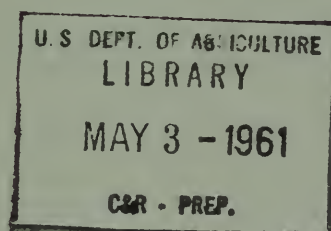


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Essentials of Good Management



BETTER PUBLIC SERVICE THROUGH BETTER MANAGEMENT

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
Washington, D.C.



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INTRODUCTION

The administrator who heads a large Federal organization has one of the most difficult tasks there is. He must see that the organization's programs--often complex and far-reaching--are carried out, and carried out efficiently. This must be done through many persons, most of whom are organizationally and geographically far removed from him. In the process, he must satisfy the people served, the public at large, the administration in office, and the Congress.

If there are any two abilities which he needs for this task above all others, they are, first, the ability to lead and develop men and, second, the ability to see things whole and to draw out of the complexity of facts, attitudes, and ideas involved in any given situation a plan of action that will help carry the organization toward its objective. But he needs many other abilities and skills also, and their development and improvement is a process which must continue throughout his life.

The purpose of this statement is to set down in brief compass the principal elements of good management--the things that any administrator must give thought to if he is to do a good job.

Good management must start with the man at the top. It can be fully achieved, however, only by the efforts of supervisors at every step of the organization structure and, finally, by the efforts of every employee.

While the statement emphasizes the tasks of top management, it should be of use to all persons having supervisory responsibilities. Every supervisor faces problems of planning, organizing, directing, coordinating, controlling, developing individual abilities, and so on. There is, consequently, a common body of management essentials and techniques which all supervisors can utilize to good advantage, although the application of any one of them must be fitted to the duties and scope of each specific supervisory position.

The techniques of management are not ends in themselves, but rather are means to the execution of operations. They must continually prove their worth in terms of what they contribute to the success of the Department's programs.

It is good business to give careful attention to these tools of management. To do so takes time away from direct attention to program matters, but experience shows that this is time well spent. A man hoeing a garden will lose some time when he stops to file his hoe, but he will cut more weeds with a sharp hoe than a dull one.

The principles discussed in the statement should not be regarded as absolute. They need to be tempered by experience and fitted to the specific needs of individual organizations. Each agency will find it profitable to arrange for groups of its officials to discuss the statement, to weigh it against their own experience, and to reach their own conclusions as to what are the essentials of good management and how they can best be put into practice.

HIGHLIGHTS FOR BUSY ADMINISTRATORS

SECTION 1. THE ADMINISTRATOR'S RESPONSIBILITY FOR GOOD MANAGEMENT

- 1. Accept personal responsibility for efficient management. (Page 1)**
 - a. You cannot delegate this responsibility.
 - b. Management throughout the organization will reflect the example you set.

SECTION 2. PLANNING

- 2. Within the framework of legislative and administration policies, shape programs to meet present and future needs. (Page 2)**
 - a. See that programs keep pace with changing social needs and anticipate future needs.
 - b. Make periodic appraisals of programs.
 - c. To the extent desirable and feasible, adjust programs to local conditions.
 - d. Utilize persons outside government in the development and appraisal of programs.
- 3. Develop long-range plans. (Page 3)**
 - a. Establish long-range objectives.
 - b. See that each organizational unit and each employee knows clearly the objectives of its particular job and how it contributes to the whole.
 - c. A guide for planning and decision-making:
 - (1) Clarify the problem--the present situation or condition requiring improvement.
 - (2) Set objectives--the desired situation or objective.
 - (3) Get all the facts, within necessary practical limits.
 - (4) Analyze the facts.
 - (5) Weigh alternatives and determine action to be taken.
 - (6) Set goals--target dates for completing major steps.

(7) Prepare plans--actions to be taken, methods to be used, resources needed, interrelationships involved.

(8) Follow up.

4. Schedule annual work programs for all organizational levels. (Page 5)

- a. Set goals for the year.
- b. Prepare work schedules--an integrated blueprint of action, with monthly or weekly breakdowns.
- c. Tie in with the budget.

5. Establish reasonable standards. (Page 6)

- a. Through systematic studies where the work is done, establish
 - Standard policies
 - Standard methods
 - Time standards
 - Standards of quality
- b. Use standards for planning and control.

6. Utilize the budget as a tool of management for effective program planning. (Page 7)

- a. Review objectives and plans in preparing the budget.
- b. Give careful attention to the relationship of benefits and costs.
- c. Establish priorities in terms of public needs.
- d. Use the budget process to help achieve coordination and avoid duplication.

SECTION 3. ORGANIZATION, MEN, AND MATERIALS

7. Establish and maintain an effective organization structure. (Page 8)

- a. As the first step in improving organization, clarify purposes and functions.
- b. As a general rule, group closely related functions in the same organizational unit.

c. Delegate.

- (1) Free yourself of operating routines to the point where you have time to think about and fulfill your managerial responsibilities.
- (2) Make clear-cut assignments of functions.
 - (a) See that subordinates know clearly what targets they should be aiming at, what authority they have and what they do not have, and what is expected in the way of results.
- (3) See that field officials have adequate authority to permit prompt action and adjustment of operations to local conditions.
- (4) Utilize carefully thought out objectives, plans, policies, standards, and controls to keep on top of your job as head of the organization.

d. Maintain unity of command. Make sure:

- (1) That each person knows to whom he reports and who reports to him.
- (2) That no person reports to more than one supervisor.

e. Maintain effective span of control--see that the number of employees who report to any one person does not exceed the number he can supervise effectively.

f. Develop an effective pattern of field organization.

- (1) Think through and define the responsibilities of and relationships between functional officials at headquarters and line officials in the field.

g. Set up the staff assistance you need to perform your managerial functions effectively.

- (1) Utilize staff work in preparation for decisions on major questions.
- (2) See that staff activities serve their basic purpose of aiding operations and do not become an end in themselves.

8. Recruit and develop good men. (Page 13)

a. Fill major positions with men of outstanding ability.

- b. Recruit at least some young people of high promise each year.
 - c. Discover and develop abilities.
 - (1) Select supervisors and executives with an eye to their managerial responsibilities.
 - d. See that employees at all levels are effectively trained for their jobs.
 - (1) Develop a plan for appraising the performance of officials in supervisory positions and for providing training in management essentials and skills.
 - (2) Train in good management by your own example.
 - (3) Work personally with your subordinates to help them develop as administrators.
 - e. Apply the Golden Rule in relationships with employees.
 - f. Give attention to group and management-employee relationships within the organization which affect performance.
 - g. Encourage high morale.
9. Provide employees with the property needed to produce maximum output at minimum cost. Make sure that the best possible utilization is made of property. (Page 18)
- a. Give continuing attention to possibilities of increasing output through the use of equipment.
 - b. Establish property utilization and replacement standards.
 - c. Use property control records and annual physical inventories as management tools.
 - d. Make periodic inspection of property and its use.
 - e. Give continuing attention to files and records problems.

SECTION 4. DIRECTION, COORDINATION, CONTROL

10. Direct the operations of the organization in such a way as to weld it into an alert, energetic, enthusiastic team devoted to the public service. (Page 20)
- a. Make the organization a living, dynamic entity by creating conditions that call forth interest in the job, vigor of action, creative ideas, and habits of teamwork.

- b. To the extent feasible, provide for employee participation in the task of managing the organization, and particularly the unit in which the employee works.
- c. Hold staff meetings regularly to stimulate ideas and obtain group judgment as to what should be done, without relinquishing final responsibility and control.
- d. Reach decisions promptly and convey them clearly to those concerned.

11. Develop two-way methods of internal communication. (Page 21)

- a. Make sure that employees understand the organization's objectives and how their work contributes to the total job to be done.
- b. Inform employees about major problems and developments and tell them the reasons for decisions.
- c. Draw up to you the ideas, suggestions, and knowledge of employees throughout the organization.

12. See that the organization's operations are effectively coordinated. (Page 23)

- a. Achieve coordination through effective planning, organizing, directing, and controlling.
- b. Coordinate internal operations.
- c. Coordinate operations with those of other government agencies, national, state, and local.

13. Exercise effective control over operations. (Page 24)

- a. Information and follow-up are the essential ingredients of control.
- b. Know whether operations are meeting established plans, standards and schedules, and concentrate attention on operations which are below standard or behind schedule.
- c. Make a periodic review to insure that only those reports are required that are essential for management purposes.
- d. Use budget allotments and accounting to help insure adherence to work plans and schedules.
- e. Utilize cost accounting and work measurements, when feasible, to provide an objective basis for evaluating progress.

- f. Safeguard against misuse of funds through auditing. Utilize internal auditing to appraise existing controls, procedures, and efficiency of operations.
- g. Inspection is essential, but must be handled with care.
 - (1) Use inspection to determine underlying causes of unsatisfactory progress.
 - (2) Inspect against established objectives, policies, plans, schedules, and standards.
 - (3) Discover what problems employees are concerned about and what suggestions they have for the improvement of programs and their administration.
 - (4) In cooperation with the official in charge of the office or unit under inspection, develop a schedule of corrective action, including training and other assistance needed.
- h. You must "go see" for yourself. Top headquarters officials should annually inspect a representative number of field offices, going down to the bottom operating level.

SECTION 5. MAINTAINING VITALITY

14. Keep Congress and the public adequately informed. (Page 28)

- a. See that Congress and the public are adequately informed.
- b. Provide training in principles of good human relations for employees who deal with the public.
- c. See that correspondence is answered promptly, intelligently, and courteously and a real interest taken in the writer's problems. Apply the same rule to phone calls and visitors.
- d. Make periodic surveys of the length of time required to answer correspondence and the quality of outgoing letters, and take action to bring about needed improvements.

15. Develop means to counteract tendencies toward ingrowing. (Page 29)

- a. Take steps to bring in new viewpoints, stimulate ideas, and insure that officials are familiar with the needs and thinking of those they serve.

16. Give continuing and systematic attention to improvement of all areas of management. (Page 29)
 - a. Look to operating people for the bulk of improvements.
 - (1) Provide assistance with respect to methods of analyzing management problems and developing improvements.
 - b. Establish an atmosphere and methods that will draw out the wealth of ideas for improvement which exist in employees' minds.
 - c. Develop and utilize effective approaches for improvement of methods.
 - d. Use organization and methods analysts as staff aides to operating officials.
 - e. Conduct comprehensive management reviews periodically.
17. Undertake administrative research to find the best answers to program and management problems. (Page 33)
 - a. Invite cooperation of universities or other Department or government agencies.

SECTION 6. THE ADMINISTRATOR'S RESPONSIBILITY TO REPRESENT THE PUBLIC INTEREST

18. Recognize your responsibility for representing and safeguarding the public interest. (Page 34)
 - a. Represent the public interest in areas within your discretion.
 - (1) Have genuine concern for the rights and interests of individuals.
 - (2) Administer programs in keeping with the spirit of the laws that established them.
 - (3) Recognize the responsibility and authority of, and be fully loyal to, the administration which the people have placed in office.

SECTION 1. THE ADMINISTRATOR'S RESPONSIBILITY FOR GOOD MANAGEMENT

1. The administrator bears personal responsibility for good management.

The administrator is personally responsible for seeing that the organization which he heads is well managed, to the end that it will serve the people of the Nation in such a way as to promote the greatest good of the greatest number in the long run.

Good management requires continuous executive interest, participation, and encouragement at all levels--from top executive to immediate supervisor. Management throughout the organization tends to reflect the man at the top. For this reason, the administrator must personally understand the essentials of good management and must apply them in his own actions. He must set the example he wishes others to follow.

SECTION 2. PLANNING

2. The organization's programs should be framed to meet present and future public needs.

a. The adjustment of programs to public needs.

It is the responsibility of the Congress to determine, through legislation, what services the government shall provide. Within this framework of legislation and subject to the policies of the administration which the people have placed in office, the administrator must shape the programs of the organization to meet public needs with maximum effectiveness.

The administrator also has a responsibility to give careful consideration and study to future needs, insofar as they can be foreseen, and to recommend to the administration measures which he believes desirable. Needs change and programs must keep pace.

At the same time, needs frequently vary from one part of the country to another. The temptation in a national organization is toward national uniformity of programs. In some respects, such uniformity may be necessary or desirable; in other respects it may not. The administrator must carefully balance these considerations and determine to what extent programs should be uniform and to what extent they should be adjusted to the conditions and genius of local areas.

Periodic appraisals should be made to insure that programs effectively serve public needs.

b. Participation by persons outside government.

In the development and appraisal of programs, there should be participation by persons outside the government. The people served or affected by a program should have an opportunity to express their views regarding it. Advisory committees--national, regional, and local--are one device which can serve this purpose. Such committees should be broadly representative of those concerned. Another approach is the designation of a group (including representatives from outside the government) to hold meetings throughout the country at which interested persons can express their views. Participation by field employees who carry programs directly to the public and therefore are familiar with its views is also important. Day-to-day consultation with farm organizations and other interested groups can help provide continuing appraisal.

Participation by those served helps to insure not only that programs are responsive to public needs, but also that sound solutions to problems are developed in a climate which will result in public acceptance.

3. Long-range plans should be developed.

a. Objectives.

Objectives involve direction and destination--which way we are going and toward what? When public needs have been determined, long-range objectives which must be achieved in order to satisfy those needs should be established. Objectives are best expressed in terms of a desired condition or state of affairs, and this must be clearly differentiated from the means or course of action necessary to achieve the objective. Objectives should be as specific as practicable.

The organization's long-range objectives in turn need to be broken down into subsidiary objectives corresponding to major segments of the organization's work. Similarly, at each lower organization level there should be a clear statement of the objectives of each unit so that each person, from the administrator to the individual employee, knows clearly the aim of his particular job and how it contributes to the achievement of the organization's major objectives.

b. Goals

A goal may be thought of as involving a time element--something specific to be accomplished by a certain date.

An integrated pattern of goals should be established which, when achieved, will carry the organization toward its long-range objectives.

Goals serve a dual purpose. They are essential both in planning and in the establishment of necessary controls.

c. The process of planning.

The planning process--and, in fact, the process of decision-making generally--should be based upon an analytical approach. This involves several steps:

(1) Clarify the problem. It is essential to see the problem clearly, that is, the present situation or condition which requires improvement.

(2) Set general objectives. Determine broadly where you are trying to go and the general condition or state of affairs you want to achieve, that is, the situation as you would like it to be.

(3) Get the facts. Get the facts that bear on the problem, including particularly those that may throw light on its causes and scope. Be sure, within necessary practical limits, that you get all the available facts that are needed. This may, in some cases, require

extensive surveys and studies. While such a survey may be somewhat costly, it may be much cheaper in the long run than undertaking a course of action which later has to be changed because it was based on inadequate or incorrect information. Feelings and opinions of persons who will be affected by a given course of action may also be extremely important.

The use of simple or advanced sampling and other statistical techniques may be helpful and may make it possible to reduce survey costs.

(4) Analyze the facts. After the facts are obtained, they should be analyzed and studied to determine their significance with respect to the problem at hand and to obtain a clear understanding of interrelationships. Analysis requires objectivity, together with a willingness to give up preconceived ideas and to accept new conclusions if the facts so require. The use of modern statistical techniques of analysis may be helpful and economical in some cases.

(5) Consider the alternatives. Consider the possible alternative approaches and their advantages and disadvantages in achieving the objectives which have been set. If feasible, try out one or more of the alternatives on a limited scale.

(6) Determine the general course of action to be taken.

(7) Set goals. Determine the major steps necessary to carry out the course decided upon and establish tentative target dates when these steps should be completed.

(8) Prepare plans. Work out the actions necessary to achieve the goals that have been established, the methods to be used, and the resources needed. Particular attention should be given to interrelationships between different parts of the plan, so that a closely coordinated course of action will result. Satisfactory coordination of operations is likely to be difficult to achieve unless careful attention is given to such interrelationships in the planning stage.

(9) Follow-up. Plans are not self-executing. Check from time to time to see what action is being taken and to make sure that it is producing the results needed to achieve the objectives determined upon or to bring about a full and effective solution to the problem at which it is aimed.

These steps are necessarily interrelated. Thus, the collection and analysis of facts may lead to modification of general objectives.

The establishment of standards is essential for effective planning. This subject is discussed in 5, below.

As indicated above, the steps of the planning process are applicable to decision-making generally. In decisions of limited scope, each step will be much less extensive, of course, than in long-range planning. Even these decisions, however, are more likely to be sound if the problem and

the objectives are first clarified, the facts gotten and analyzed, and the other steps followed in order.

d. Is long-range planning worth while?

Despite the uncertainties which frequently surround the implementation of long-range plans, such planning is nevertheless desirable. Often planning of this type can be tied in with and can facilitate the preparation and presentation of budget estimates. The administrator who knows what his objectives are, what steps are necessary to achieve them, and what resources will be required is certain, in the long run, to accomplish more than one who operates on a day-to-day, catch-as-catch-can basis.

4. Work programs should be scheduled.

Work programs should be scheduled, within the framework of the agency's long-term plans. These schedules should generally be on an annual basis, with monthly or weekly breakdowns. They should be based on the budget estimates and necessary adjustments made when appropriations become available.

In an operating agency, the following are key steps in scheduling work programs:

a. Establish reasonably attainable annual goals, nationally, regionally, and locally. These should sum up what the agency wishes to accomplish at each organizational level during the year, including things to be given priority or emphasis during the year.

b. Determine the specific tasks that will have to be done at each organizational level in order to accomplish the agency's goals for the year.

c. Prepare work schedules at all work levels, national to local. The work schedule should be an integrated blueprint of action for carrying out the annual work program. It involves spelling out what is to be done, why it is to be done, when, where, and by whom, and how it is to be accomplished. These schedules should generally be on a monthly or weekly basis. They should, for example, include travel itineraries, so planned as to permit maximum coverage and accomplishment on each trip. The work schedule should provide for sufficient flexibility to permit adjustment to be made when necessary, as, for example, in the case of unusual weather interfering with outdoor operations.

In addition to the scheduling of work programs as discussed above, recurring operations in general should be scheduled whenever feasible. This involves the establishment of due dates for each major step in the operation. A simple example is the scheduling of jobs in a duplicating plant or the scheduling of certain types of recurring clerical

operations. At the other extreme, scheduling has been applied successfully to the handling of rural electric and telephone loans, including the preparation and processing of contracts and other legal documents.

Frequently scheduling can be applied to operations to which, at first, it might not seem adaptable. Almost any activity, including the work of the administrator himself, will benefit from some degree of scheduling.

5. Standards should be established.

The establishment of standards is essential for both planning and control, and is a two-way bridge between them. Without standards the administrator is handicapped, on the one hand, in attempting to determine what he can expect to accomplish with the resources available and, on the other, in judging whether the performance of the organization is satisfactory.

Standards reflect norms, and therefore should be established only after very careful, systematic study. If they are set too high or are otherwise impractical or unrealistic, they will discourage those who are expected to meet them. If set too low, they are of little value to the administrator. Standards will necessarily vary in place and time, for what may be reasonable in one area or at one time may be unreasonable in another, due to differences in conditions. Several different types of standards are needed.

The establishment of standard policies may simplify operations considerably by relieving the administrator of the necessity of reaching determinations repeatedly when similar sets of circumstances prevail.

Standard methods should embody the best way of carrying on specific operations. In establishing a standard method, an intensive, on-the-ground study should be made of the operation under consideration, in which every step is challenged as to why, what, where, when, how, who. Unnecessary steps should be eliminated and a consensus arrived at as to the best way to perform the operation. This determination should, as a rule, be reached in cooperation with employees, or a representative group of them, engaged in the operation under review. If this is done, the new method is much more likely to be accepted by the employees who must carry it out. The most efficient method possible, if imposed on employees who do not accept it, may prove in practice to be the least efficient. 1/

1/ It has been suggested that in some situations, rather than prescribing standard methods, it may be better to indicate purposes and objectives and general results expected and then challenge the unit concerned to work out the best way of doing the job. The encouragement of initiative and ingenuity that can result from this approach may produce results that actually outweigh the benefits from using the "one best method." The answer to this apparent paradox may lie in following the practice of developing standard methods jointly with employees engaged in the operation, as suggested above.

Time standards refer to the length of time normally required to do a certain task, or the number of operations that should be completed within a certain time. An example is the number of farm conservation plans that should normally be completed by a field conservationist in one month. Time standards are one type of performance standard.

In setting time standards, first determine the best method for the operation in question. Then ascertain the time required, when this method is used, for a properly trained employee of satisfactory ability to perform the task, working at a normal rate of speed and under normal conditions.

Standards of quality are sometimes difficult to establish and may involve a greater degree of judgment in their application than other types of standards. Occasionally quality standards can be expressed in terms of percentage of errors or defective items allowed. In some cases, particularly in activities involving engineering, construction, or the handling of natural resources, precise standards of quality may also be feasible. In many cases, however, such standards may best be expressed by breaking the job in question down into its principal parts and describing the performance or results desired with respect to each part.

Standards should be put in writing and should be readily available in manuals, handbooks, or otherwise.

6. The budget should be used as a tool of management for effective program planning.

Budgeting is essentially a technique of program planning, since the allocation of funds determines what is to be done. The budgeting process should be tied in with and made a part of the entire planning process. The preparation of the budget affords an opportunity for annual review of objectives and work plans. The budget process should also be utilized to help provide effective coordination of work and to avoid unnecessary duplication of activities.

In the preparation of the budget, careful attention should be given to the relationship of benefits and costs. In some operations, this can be calculated fairly closely. In others, such as research projects, only a general evaluation can be made. Even here, however, the process of weighing costs against benefits can be helpful in determining whether a particular activity should be undertaken.

The administrator has a basic obligation to be economical. Since ordinarily not all functions which may be desirable can be carried on, one of the major responsibilities of the administrator is to consider and recommend program priorities, as reflected in budget estimates. This means seeing not only that functions which have outlived their needs are discontinued, but also that functions of low priority are not continued while programs of high priority are neglected.

SECTION 3. ORGANIZATION, MEN, AND MATERIALS

7. An effective organizational structure should be established and maintained.

In a broad sense, organization is the allocation of available resources, human and material, to the task at hand. Basically, organization involves division of labor, that is, dividing the whole job to be done into workable parts. This brings about the advantages of specialization, but at the same time gives rise to need for coordination to insure that the parts work together effectively.

Organization is one of the major tests of good management. Confusion as to who is responsible for what or to whom--not uncommon in both governmental and private agencies--will inevitably result in inefficiency. Following is a brief discussion of some of the major aspects of organization. Each of the points discussed must, of course, be applied with careful regard for differences in the operations of individual agencies.

a. Bases of organization.

The possible bases of organization are frequently stated as purpose, process, persons or things dealt with, and place or area. Organization may be based on any one of these, as, for example, area in the case of state and county offices. It cannot be said that there is any one best basis or type of organizational structure. An organization is a living and dynamic entity and for this reason a type of structure appropriate at one state of growth may not be suitable at a later stage.

Perhaps the most important principle of organization is that structure must be shaped to purpose. It is impossible to organize effectively if the purpose or function of the organization or any of its units is confused. You can't organize to do a job if you don't know what the job is. For this reason, the first step in improving organization often is to clarify purpose and functions.

Another useful concept in organizing is that of integration or interrelationship--putting together in one unit, section, division, etc., those operations which are closely interrelated. Points of close interrelationship are points of possible operational difficulty or failure and call for a common supervisor who can see that operations are properly coordinated. A careful survey to determine and evaluate interrelationships may be found helpful in solving difficult organizational problems. Against this principle, which emphasizes integration of operations, must be weighed the advantages of specialization, which emphasizes division of labor.

At the same time, it should be recognized that interrelationship is a matter of degree and that it is not possible to put all related functions into one organizational unit. There are necessarily many cross relationships in any organization, and these require working together across organizational lines.

Duplication of operations, both in program and in staff and service functions, must be avoided. There is a tendency for each operating unit to want to be sufficient unto itself. This may lead to the establishment of services or functions already available elsewhere. Some degree of duplication between different organizational levels is often found in administrative service functions, particularly in fiscal and other records. In some cases, this may indicate overcentralization. In other cases, it may mean that a central administrative unit is not supplying operating units at the lower levels the tools they need for efficient day-to-day operation, or is not supplying them quickly enough or in the form needed.

It is important to make sure that there are no gaps in the organization--that is, necessary functions that have not been clearly assigned to any organizational unit.

b. Delegation of authority.

When organizational structure has been determined, functions should be clearly and specifically assigned to each unit. The officials in charge of these units should know clearly what targets or purposes they should be aiming at, what authority they have and what they do not have, what they are responsible for, and what the administrator expects in the way of results. Their authority must be commensurate with their responsibilities. Such assignment of functions necessarily involves some degree of delegation of authority.

Experience indicates that vigorous management is hardly possible if the administrator attempts to hold authority closely to himself. He must permit--even require--his subordinates to assume responsibility for many important decisions. He must free himself of operating routines, however important they may be, to the point where he has sufficient time to think about and to fulfill his managerial responsibilities. His job is not so much to do himself as to see that essential things are done.^{1/}

^{1/} One device that may be helpful in giving the administrator more time for his proper work is to have each assistant administrator in turn serve as acting administrator for a given period. The acting administrator, even though the administrator is in town, signs documents requiring official approval, providing they are in accordance with previously established policy. This frees the administrator for attention to major policy and management matters. At the same time, the plan insures that the assistant administrators will become familiar with the operations of the entire organization. Another device is the appointment of a deputy administrator concerned with day-to-day operations of the organization as a whole.

The central question here is, how can the administrator delegate authority and still retain sufficient control to be able to meet his responsibilities to his superior and to the Congress? In general terms, the answer to this question lies in putting major emphasis on careful planning, setting standards, and establishing effective controls to insure that plans and standards are being met. The establishment of carefully thought out objectives, goals, plans, policies, and standards facilitates delegation of authority; freedom to act within their limits can then be granted with greater safety. At the same time, the administrator is freed from the paralyzing necessity of approving individual actions of subordinates and can concentrate on the main tasks of management which are his reason for being.

Delegation of adequate and clearly understood authority is particularly necessary in the case of field operations. Reference of matters to headquarters for decision necessarily means delay in serving the public and may result in decisions by persons not sufficiently familiar with local conditions. Within established plans and policies and subject to specific limits, field officials should have authority to act promptly, to adjust operations to local conditions and needs, and to negotiate necessary working agreements with other Federal field officials and with State and local officials and private organizations. This requires that plans, policies, and limitations be expressly stated.

Decentralization increases the need for measures to counteract provincialism, such as periodic transfer of personnel to new situations, conferences in which there is an opportunity to interchange ideas with men from other areas, and university courses or readings.

c. Line of authority.

There should be a clear line of authority running from the top to the bottom of the organization. Each person in the organization should know to whom he reports and who reports to him. No person should report to more than one supervisor, although, of course, he may have to work with several.

d. Span of control.

The number of employees who report to any one person should not exceed the number he can supervise effectively. This will vary with the nature of the functions involved, the closeness of the relationship between these functions, staff services available, degree of standardization, and various other factors. If employees are not receiving adequate supervision--and this may occur at any level of the organization--the trouble may be due to the fact that too many employees are reporting to one supervisor. Widely accepted management criteria suggests a span of control guideline of not exceeding seven or eight line people when the functions performed are rather closely interrelated.

On the other hand, difficulty may arise not so much from the number of employees supervised as from the fact that the supervisor is attempting to

review their work too closely and is not able to perform his proper functions of planning, training, coordinating, and so forth.

Against the argument that too many employees are reporting to one supervisor in any given situation, there need to be balanced the disadvantages that result from setting up additional organizational levels. The establishment of an organization level that is not needed will result both in delay and in reducing the effectiveness of the employees whose work is subjected to unnecessary review.

These considerations suggest that the question of how many employees should report to one supervisor cannot be reduced to a rigid mathematical formula. If difficulty is being experienced, various considerations will need to be looked at, including the number of employees supervised, the degree of delegation, and the extent to which the supervisor is performing his true managerial functions.

e. Washington-field organization and relationships.

(1) Unified field organization. A question that may arise in connection with field organization is whether all field operations should come under a single line of command, with a field official in each geographic area responsible for everything the agency does in that area, or whether there should be several lines of command, with each major program division responsible for its own field operations.

There is no general answer to this problem. If the operations of the agency are very closely related, it will usually be desirable to have all operations in a given geographical area under the direction of one man. Otherwise lack of coordination is likely to occur and public inconvenience and criticism will result--witness the story of the hotel owner in Minnesota who wrote the Governor, saying: "Yesterday the Hotel Inspector told me to put in a new floor. Today the Health Inspector told me to tear down the place. Which should I do first?"

In other cases, there may be good reasons for not having a unified field organization. For example, if an agency carries on both direct operations and research, it may be desirable to have separate organizations for each. A unified field organization might result in neglect of research due to the pressure of operations and might make it more difficult to correlate research carried on in different parts of the country.

(2) Relationships between the line of authority and functional lines.

In an agency having a unified field organization, there is a line of authority running from the administrator to the head of each successive field level. Normally there are a number of functional divisions in Washington and, as a rule, corresponding functional units or specialists at one or more levels in the field. In addition to the line of authority, there will be lines paralleling it from one functional unit to the corresponding unit at the next geographical level.

The relationship between the line of authority and the functional lines is exceedingly important. Conflict of control as between specified functional units at headquarters and line officials in the field must be avoided. The solution of this problem--which is not easy--appears to lie in the proper definition of the respective roles of the functional and the line officials. Each has his job to do and his contribution to make, and these contributions are necessarily different in kind.

In general, the task of the functional unit is to provide leadership and assistance with respect to specialized techniques and operations. The task of the field official in charge of operations in a given area is to direct, coordinate, and control operations, making full use of the contributions of the functional units. He must see that the program is properly balanced and that one specialty is not overemphasized at the expense of others. He must see that the advice of the functional units is fitted to the particular conditions prevailing in his area. Finally, if the calls of the functional units are conflicting or add up to more than his budget will allow, he must be in a position to decide what is to be done or to get a prompt decision from his superior.

General policies and plans should be issued down the line of authority and only down that line. Within the framework of established policies and plans, functional units at headquarters may not only communicate with the corresponding functional units at the next geographical level but may also issue instructions, addressed to the official in overall charge at that level.

Functional officials in the field, in a unified type of field organization, should report to the line official in charge of the geographical area in question, not to their functional counterparts at headquarters.

Under this pattern of field organization, it is possible to take full advantage of technical specialization and to permit maximum freedom of contact between technicians at the several levels, but simultaneously to insure coordination, balancing of functions, and the overall view which are indispensable to effective operations. At the same time, each person knows clearly to whom he is responsible.^{1/}

f. Staff organization.

This term is used to refer to a variety of organizational arrangements. Staff units usually are established because they provide the advantages of specialization of function. The simplest type of staff unit, perhaps more properly called a service unit, is one such as a library or mail room which

^{1/} For a fuller discussion, see Washington-Field Relationships in the Federal Service, published by the Graduate School, USDA (1942), especially pages 23-34.

performs functions that serve other units in the organization. A staff unit may exercise certain controls, as approval of purchase orders, or it may provide leadership in its specialized field.

Another sense in which the term "staff" is used is to refer to functions relating to collection and analysis of information, evaluation of alternative approaches, and preparation of plans and recommendations. These functions may relate either to program or to administrative matters. A staff exercising such functions is an arm of the administrator to aid him and operating officials under his direction by performing tasks which they do not have time to do personally. Without this assistance, the administrator, particularly in a large organization, is greatly handicapped in reaching sound decisions on major questions. Good staff work in preparation of such decisions is extremely important.

Whether a staff function is primarily service, control, leadership, or advisory in character, the major problem is to see that it does not tend to become an end in itself, to delay rather than promote operations, or to lose touch with operating realities. To build an effective organization, the administrator needs both strong staff units and strong operating units. Staff units cannot be effective if they tend to work in isolation from or without sympathetic appreciation of operating problems. Planning for example, cannot be divorced from operations, and sound plans can hardly be prepared without the full participation of operating officials. In the final analysis, staff actions must be judged by the test of what contribution they make to the advancement of the organization's programs.

g. Organization of work flow.

This is a somewhat technical subject and will not be discussed in detail here. It is concerned with different methods of organizing or dividing work, particularly in large-scale repetitive operations. Such operations may be organized either on a serial, parallel, or unit assembly basis. By careful analysis of work steps and application of the type of work organization most advantageous for the particular operation, it may prove possible materially to increase output or speed of service.

8. Good men must be recruited and developed.

One of the administrator's most important tasks is to recruit and develop good men. The human element is the key to maximum effectiveness in management. The very term "management" might well be read as implying the skillful leading and handling of men. In this respect, management must be viewed as the total of all employees of the organization, as members of a functioning organic group. It is this group membership which gives an energy or force greater than the mere sum of individual members.

a. Fill major positions with men of outstanding ability.

The functions of government are of the utmost importance to society. They involve tasks of great difficulty and decisions of far-reaching consequences. For this reason, positions of major responsibility should be filled by men and women of the highest ability and integrity. There should be, within the organization, a reservoir of these potential qualities, upon which to draw in filling major positions. Each year, at least some young people of very high ability and promise should be recruited at the time when they complete school. Experience shows that unless there is an opportunity for them to enter public service at that time, many of the ablest will become established in promising positions outside government and it will then not ordinarily be possible to interest them in a career in government service.

While it appears hardly possible to build an effective permanent organization on any other than a career basis, the occasional employment of men of marked ability and imagination from outside the career service may be desirable. Here the problem is to balance the stimulation which may result against possible loss of morale on the part of career employees.

b. Discover and develop abilities.

Effective ways should be utilized to develop the full abilities of all employees. Undoubtedly many persons have abilities of a high order that are not fully utilized. The essential need here is for some systematic procedure for discovering and evaluating abilities, methods for developing them, and a plan for seeing that people are placed, insofar as possible, in positions that will best utilize their abilities.

Especial attention should be given to the discovery and development of persons who have particular aptitude for supervisory and executive work. Considerable success has been had recently in the use of aptitude tests to discover those who have basic ability of this type, as well as to screen those who do not possess it in sufficient degree to be likely to succeed as supervisors. In the selection of persons for supervisory positions at all levels, careful attention should be given to ability to develop and work with people, to provide leadership, to plan, organize, and coordinate, and to apply the other principles of management, in addition to knowledge of technical and program matters which the job may require. A good technician is not necessarily a good supervisor.

While many methods of stimulating development can be used, none can take the place of varied assignments which offer maximum challenge and opportunity as a means of broadening an individual and at the same time discovering the range of his abilities.

c. See that employees at all levels are effectively trained for their jobs.

Production can often be substantially increased through training. While employees will usually have the basic qualifications for their jobs, when first assigned they may need detailed training in work techniques. As new and improved methods are developed, even experienced employees will need to be trained in their use. Training in safety should be given employees whose work may frequently involve accident hazards.

All supervisors, beginning at the top, should receive training in management essentials and skills. One of the administrator's major responsibilities is to help subordinates increase their skill in management--in essence, to help his subordinates develop into able administrators in their own right. A plan for appraising their performance in this respect and determining their individual training needs is valuable to this end.

An effective approach for training in management is the use, over a period of time, of frequent on-the-job training sessions for small groups of officials. These sessions should be accompanied by follow-up discussions with each member of the group individually in which the principles discussed in the group meetings are applied to the official's immediate management problems. A competent counselor or training officer can assist in conducting these sessions, but they must be fully understood and supported and, preferably, participated in by the administrator.

Another approach--which can be used concurrently with such training sessions--is through work conferences of the administrator and his subordinates on common management problems. Such a conference can begin by listing problems which are of general concern and determining priority of importance. These problems can then be attacked by the group as a whole or by sub-groups, and solutions, or principles to be followed in seeking solutions, can be developed. Time can also be devoted to general consideration of management essentials and techniques, and outside speakers can be invited to bring in new viewpoints or contribute from specialized experience.

While these and other methods are helpful, they must be accompanied by continuous action by the administrator to promote good management in the organization. His personal example is of first importance, for if he does not carry on the functions of management effectively, it is unlikely that his subordinates will show interest and develop skill in these matters.

Beyond this, the administrator should work personally and systematically with his subordinates in determining areas and problems of management requiring attention and in helping them to improve and grow in their jobs. A specific time may profitably be set aside regularly for an individual discussion with each subordinate for this purpose.

In addition to training in management techniques, careful thought should be given to ways of helping to develop breadth of knowledge, judgment, ability to think, to express one's self clearly, and to cooperate with others, as well as similar qualities. At the same time, ways must be found to challenge people to put training into practice. If this is not accomplished, the methods of training used cannot be regarded as successful.

Training is one of the basic management responsibilities of each supervisor. A training officer can be of a great deal of assistance, but he cannot relieve the supervisor of his responsibility for developing his men.

In recent years, much study has been given to training methods and to discovery of what techniques are most effective for the type of training needed in a particular position or group of positions. The results of this research should be utilized in order to develop a training program that achieves maximum results at minimum cost.

Training programs will not be fully effective if they are not aimed at needs which operating officials feel are important. Nor will a training program produce maximum results unless it has the personal support and interest of the administrator behind it.

d. Employees are human beings.

The attitude of the administrator and of supervisors under him toward employees will greatly influence the spirit and productivity of the entire organization. It has been found that excessively close supervision tends to lower production. Employees usually do better work when they have some degree of freedom in determining how to do their jobs. Another factor that studies of leadership and morale have found to be of major importance is a real interest on the part of the supervisor in the welfare of those who work under him--essentially the application of the Golden Rule. This includes a great many things. It means, to mention only a few:

Seeing that employees know what they are expected to do and that they have the means necessary to do a good job.

Providing good working conditions.

Challenging employees to improve themselves.

Helping them to get better jobs when they are qualified even if it hurts to let them go.

Giving them credit for what they do and commendation for good work.

Standing behind them when they make mistakes.

Standing up for them when they are criticized, and never criticizing them when others are present.

Keeping them posted on organizational and work changes so that they are not left in uncertainty and fear as to what will happen to them.

If their jobs must be abolished, helping to place them elsewhere at comparable salaries if this is in any way possible.

Seeing that they are treated fairly.

Giving them a share in discussing what is to be done.

Explaining in advance the reasons for decisions.

Lending them a helping hand in trouble.

Listening to them.

In short, according them the respect and dignity and consideration to which they are entitled as human beings.

Supervisors should be helped to develop skills in dealing effectively with problems involving human relations.

e. Give attention to what may be called the informal organization of the agency.

This phrase is used in a very broad sense, to refer to what might be called group and management-employee relationships within an organization which affect performance.

(1) The Hawthorne studies. The classic studies at the Hawthorne Plant of the Western Electric Company^{1/} brought out clearly the fact that group relationships in an organization may be much more important than physical factors and working conditions, such as temperature, lighting, hours of work, rest periods, and so forth, and even than economic motivation. In one of these studies, output rose as the workers became integrated as a group free of close supervision and as it developed more understanding relationships with management.

The research workers who conducted the studies differentiate between the formal and informal organization of employees, the latter comprising group relationships that develop spontaneously. Sometimes these relationships take on a somewhat protective character because of organizational or other job uncertainties which disturb employees. The employee is frequently

^{1/} For a concise summary of these studies, see L. J. Henderson, T. L. Whitehead, and Elton Mayo, "The Effects of Social Environment," in Papers on the Science of Administration, edited by Gulick and Urwick, pages 145-158. Quotations are from this article. Various other studies tend to support the conclusions reached in the Hawthorne studies.

"in the position of having to accommodate himself to changes which he does not initiate. Many of the changes to which he is asked to adjust rob him of the very things that give meaning and significance to his work." . . .

. . . Social organization is, in fact, a human need; it is, in some measure, necessary and inevitable. Its mere existence disciplines the members and gives rise to sentiments, often very strong sentiments, of loyalty, of personal and group integrity, and not infrequently of pride. . . . as experiment shows, [social organization] is in several respects so important that it cannot be neglected by anyone who wishes to plan wisely, or even merely to know what he is doing.

(2) The application of these studies to management. Much more research is needed to learn how to apply the lessons of the Hawthorne studies. They emphasize once more, however, the penalty in terms of lowered production that results from organizational and other job uncertainties, absence of understanding on the part of the employee of what management is trying to accomplish, lack of a share in determining matters that closely concern him, or supervisory practices that lessen interest and enthusiasm.

f. Encourage high morale.

High morale does not necessarily insure high production. It is possible to have a group of people working very enthusiastically but very inefficiently. Low morale, on the other hand, is almost certain to lower productivity. What is needed is both high and intelligently directed enthusiasm.

Violation of any of the essentials of good management can impair morale--for example, lack of planning, organizational tangles, failure to state clearly what an employee is supposed to do, poor communication, failure to provide needed equipment, undesirable working conditions, inefficient methods, inequitable or arrogant treatment, and so on.

While all the functions of management discussed in this statement can help build morale, those things are particularly important that make the employee feel that he, as an individual, is valuable, that his contribution is appreciated, and that he is a necessary part of something greater than himself. People spend a large part of their lives at their jobs; they must be able to find in them real meaning and satisfaction.

Morale surveys, properly conducted, can be valuable in providing clues to weak spots in management.

9. Employees should be provided with the property needed to produce maximum output at minimum cost. The administrator should make sure that the best possible utilization is made of property.

The term "property" is used here to include everything of a material character needed to carry on the organization's program effectively

including not only property itself but also its efficient layout and management.

a. Using equipment to increase efficiency.

Continuing attention should be given to possibilities of increasing output through the use of equipment and other types of property, or through better layout. Someone should be responsible for studying these possibilities and for keeping abreast of new developments.

b. Utilization and replacement standards.

Property needs can be intelligently determined only in relation to program operations. Effective scheduling of program operations will make possible maximum property utilization. Property needs can best be measured by means of property utilization and replacement standards. Minimum needs at each office or station should be determined, and property assigned to that location in accordance with the standards. Examples are miles per year for automotive equipment and hours of use for office machines.

c. Control records, inventories, and inspection.

Property control records and annual physical inventories should be used as management tools. They should be made available to top management for use in program planning, in determining property policies and standards, in insuring the best possible utilization of property, and in preventing accumulation of property in excess of needs. Control records should be supplemented by an adequate periodic inspection system.

d. Records management.

Property includes records and files. Attention should be given to the installation of effective filing systems and to other phases of records management, including disposition of records. Someone should be made responsible for technical assistance and improvement in this area.

SECTION 4. DIRECTION, COORDINATION, CONTROL

10. The administrator must direct the operations of the organization in such a way as to weld it into an alert, energetic, enthusiastic team devoted to the public service.

a. The function of direction.

The heart of management is the direction of men. The final test of the administrator is his capacity to enlist the full abilities, energy, and enthusiasm of all employees.

The function of direction may be defined broadly as the task of making the organization a living, dynamic entity, of creating the conditions that make for interest in the job, vigor of action, creative ideas, and habits of teamwork. This goal is not one that can be reached through any set formula. Its achievement rests, in part, upon personal qualities of leadership.

b. Participation in direction.

Perhaps the most important motivating force in this respect--stronger even than monetary rewards--is the principle of participation in some form or other in the task of managing the organization, and particularly the unit in which the employee works. People tend to identify themselves with and put their full energies behind activities in the management of which they have a part. The administrator who holds his authority closely is not likely to command the same loyalty and enthusiasm as one who seeks to reach decisions through the process of discussion and consultation with his subordinates. Such participation in management can also be an important factor in helping to develop executive abilities.

Group consideration of problems and what to do about them can help the administrator to arrive at better solutions. Group consideration tends to bring out factors which might be overlooked or underestimated by any one person and also reduces the possibility of extreme judgments by a single individual. For certain types of matters, the administrator may find it helpful to have all his subordinates submit their recommendations on a given problem individually rather than discuss it in a group.

Staff meetings of a supervisor and his immediate subordinates for the purpose of discussing operating problems, stimulating ideas, eliciting suggestions, and obtaining the judgment of the group as to what to do are an essential tool of management. They can also serve as a means of keeping the administrator and his subordinates informed. They are needed at all levels, not merely at the top. As a general rule, they should be held at least once a week, on a set day, and for a fixed period. They should be carefully planned. Those participating should, if possible, know in advance what subjects are coming up. Essential facts should be gathered and, preferably, made available to the participants before the meeting.

The chairman needs to develop skill in guiding discussion to bring out essential points, obtain the real views of all participants, and restrain monopolization and irrelevant talk. There is sometimes a tendency for one or a few persons to dominate consideration of a matter, particularly if it falls in their area of responsibility, and for the others to assent without giving the problem real thought. This needs to be guarded against and the participants encouraged to think broadly about each problem discussed regardless of whether or not they have direct responsibility for it. Decisions arrived at in the meeting or afterward should be clearly stated.

The administrator, of course, bears ultimate responsibility and must, therefore, retain ultimate authority. Staff meetings are essentially advisory in character. In developing methods of participation, the responsibilities of management should not be forgotten, and participation must not mean indecision or lack of leadership on the part of the administrator or unwillingness on the part of subordinates to accept his decisions. Evidence to date, however, suggests that democratic principles, exercised within the necessary framework of administrative responsibility and authority, can make an important contribution to effective operation.

c. The importance of decision.

In a narrower sense, the term "direction" refers to the function of reaching determinations and issuing instructions as to what is to be done. In this respect, the important thing is to reach decisions as promptly as possible in the light of existing circumstances, to convey decisions clearly to those concerned, and to explain the reasons for and the purpose of the instruction. Explaining the purpose helps to make for more intelligent execution as well as better acceptance. Unduly postponing decisions, failing to decide clearly, or neglecting to let those concerned know what has been decided and why, tends, to that degree, to paralyze the organization.

11. Two-way methods of internal communication -- down and up -- should be developed.

a. Employees must understand the organization's objectives.

A man cannot do his best work unless he knows why he is doing it. Employees should understand what the organization is trying to accomplish and how their work contributes to the total job to be done. Cross relationships must also be understood--that is, how the work of a unit contributes to or affects the work of other units in the organization and of other organizations.

In addition to understanding the basic objectives of the organization, employees should be kept posted on its progress, problems, and policies. If they have a feeling that they are being kept in the dark about what is going on, their enthusiasm, and, consequently, their productivity, are likely to suffer.

b. Communication downward.

For successful downward communication, there must be a willingness to inform employees about major developments. If information is restricted to trivial matters, employees will recognize it for what it is. Similarly, there must be a willingness to give timely information--information on problems as they arise and on developments as they are under way, not merely notice of what the administrator has already decided. To be effective, communication must, above all, be genuine. Finally, unless the administrator lets employees know the why of such matters, communication will fall very much short of what it should be.

Methods of downward communication include orientation and other types of training, conferences, staff meetings, policy statements, circulation of copies of important letters and other documents, memoranda, and so on. Periodic memoranda or other devices which inform employees of developments which they need to know about in order to carry on their work with maximum effectiveness are particularly helpful. Different groups of officials and employees have different information needs, and communication practices should be adjusted accordingly.

c. Communication upward.

It is extremely important to develop successful methods of upward communication. The administrator needs to draw up to him the ideas, suggestions, and knowledge of employees throughout the organization.

In addition to the use of staff meetings, communication upward may be accomplished through personal discussion, conferences, committees, memoranda, employee suggestion plans, and various methods of sampling or representation when the number of employees involved is too great to permit canvass of them all. One plan that is particularly helpful is to submit to field units, for comments and suggestions, proposed actions which will affect field operations.

Upward communication requires a willingness to listen, to accept, to make changes when good ideas come forward. It cannot succeed if there is fear of punishment for speaking up or lack of interest at the top. Such communication cannot be forced; it must be earned. Only as an administrator demonstrates his sincere interest in employees will they respond by fully sharing their knowledge and ideas with him.^{1/}

^{1/} For a fuller discussion of communication, see USDA Management Bulletin No. 3, Understanding Objectives, particularly chapters 9 and 10 on ways of getting the ideas and experience of field employees up to the top.

12. The organization's operations should be effectively coordinated, both internally and externally.

Coordination may be defined as "the synchronized functioning of many parts . . . a meshing of gears resulting in concerted action attuned to the common purpose of the mechanism" 1/

Basically, coordination should flow or result from effective planning, organizing, directing, and controlling. It should not be thought of as a function which can somehow be superimposed upon the management process. Continued need for special coordinating devices may, in fact, be an indication of poor planning and organization. It is certain that far too much time will be consumed in coordinating efforts if the other functions of management are not well performed.

a. Internal coordination.

It is the administrator's responsibility to see that the operations of the organization are properly coordinated and integrated so that they all contribute to its common end and any working at cross purposes is avoided.

b. External coordination.

At the same time, the administrator should undertake to find out at what points the programs of the organization relate to those of other government agencies, national, state, and local, and should cooperate with them in integrating the programs, to the end that the greatest total service to the public may be accomplished.

c. Coordination in the early stages.

Effective coordination requires that attention be given in the planning and budgeting stages to interrelationships between programs. If this is left until money has been appropriated and operations have begun, it will frequently be found difficult or impossible to achieve effective coordination because of the fact that the programs were not originally planned in such a way that they would fit together.

d. Coordination through organization.

What may be called integrated organizational structure can be helpful in achieving coordination. This requires consideration of all functions of an agency as well as the functions of each unit, so as to insure that the work done within each unit contributes the maximum possible amount to the end purposes of the agency, without duplicating the work of other units handling related operations.

1/ P. V. Cardon in a panel discussion on "What Are The Important Administrative Problems of the Department of Agriculture, as Seen by Top Management," December 16, 1948.

e. Other means of achieving coordination.

Various other means can be used for achieving coordination. Staff meetings can be employed to discuss problems which involve more than one part of the organization, to note points of interrelationship, and to plan action to insure that programs fit together. A staff assistant may be employed for the purpose of discovering points at which coordination is needed and working out with operating officials the details as to how it is to be achieved. Occasionally, in the case of an undertaking involving several types of operations which need to be very closely integrated, it may be desirable to establish a task force consisting of employees drawn from various specialties, under a single leader. Again, coordination can frequently be aided by establishing procedures which spell out how matters affecting more than one organizational unit are to be handled.

In the final analysis, perhaps the most important element in achieving coordination is the development throughout the organization of a tradition of working together. This can be promoted by making sure that all employees have the same understanding of the organization's objectives and are familiar with what is done in units other than their own.

13. The administrator must exercise effective control over operations.

The administrator should develop methods which will provide him with the information he must have in order to exercise effective control. He can exercise such control only if he has available adequate information as to progress being made in carrying on the organization's operations and as to problems and difficulties being encountered.

a. The establishment of standards; the exception principle.

Wherever possible, a reporting system should be established which indicates whether operations are meeting established standards and schedules. When it is possible to set up standards at strategic points by which to judge performance, the task of the administrator is greatly simplified. He can then follow what is commonly called the exception principle, that is, give special attention to those operations that are below standard or behind schedule.

b. Narrative and statistical reports.

Narrative and statistical reports can be used to describe progress made, problems being encountered, and factors that are preventing satisfactory achievement. In the case of statistical reports, sampling techniques can often be used effectively to reduce the cost of measuring operations. Statistical quality control is a method based on sampling operations to determine whether a standard consisting of an allowable number or percentage of errors or defective items has been exceeded.

It is important to see that only those reports are required that are essential for purposes of management. One report that really serves the needs of management may sometimes replace several that are of no actual value to the administrator. A review should be made periodically to discover and weed out reports that are not essential.

c. Financial and related controls.

Budget allotments should be used as a means of helping to insure adherence to work plans and schedules. Similarly, accounting should be a tool that tells the administrator promptly how much money has been spent for what purpose. It should help him to measure the degree to which work programs and schedules have been met. In order to serve this function, the accounting system must be set up in such a way that it provides the information that the administrator needs for control purposes.

Cost accounting and work measurement are other tools which can often be used by the administrator to provide an objective basis for evaluating progress. They are not adaptable to all types of operations, but when their use is feasible, they help to provide standards of performance which facilitate effective management.

Auditing is primarily a scrutinizing and verification of financial transactions and accounts for the purpose of safeguarding against misuse of funds. Internal audit includes the review of an agency's financial affairs so as to protect and secure the Government's interest; the testing of the adequacy of management controls established to prevent the dissipation of the resources of the agency; the appraisal of existing agency controls, procedures, and instructions; the determination that each organizational unit is carrying out the plans, policies, and procedures for which it is responsible; and the making of recommendations to strengthen effectiveness and increase efficiency of internal operations. These functions should be carried on by a staff which is independent of line operations.

d. Inspection.

Written reports by field officials do not in themselves provide an adequate foundation for effective control. For this reason, an inspection system should be developed.

(1) Objectives of inspection. The basic objective of inspection should be to determine whether the organization is effectively meeting its responsibilities to the public--how good a job is being done, what are the causes of any unsatisfactory conditions, and what needs to be done about them. Inspection should note outstanding accomplishments, and should also ascertain what assistance and training are needed by the persons whose units are being inspected, as a basis for helping to develop the knowledge and abilities needed to do a better job.

While an inspection system is an essential element of management, it must be developed and operated with great care. If inspection is thought of as a type of detective action intended to "get the goods" on field operating officials, it will fall far short of making its proper contribution to good management. It may, in fact, be harmful rather than beneficial. Unless an inspection system is able to discover what problems field employees are concerned about and what suggestions they have, it cannot be regarded as successful. This information, however, can hardly be obtained unless an atmosphere of mutual trust has been established so that the field employee believes that the person making the inspection is there to help and not to harm him.

(2) Inspect against objectives, plans, and standards. Insofar as feasible, inspections should be made against established objectives, policies, plans, schedules, and standards, and should indicate whether they are understood and are being observed or met.

(3) Types of inspection. Both general and special types of inspections are needed. The former is a comprehensive look at performance, including the handling of management responsibilities. The latter relate to specialized aspects of the organization's programs. Internal auditing, as discussed above, is, of course, a form of inspection and needs to be related to other types of inspection which may be used.

Inspections should be so planned that all offices, stations, and field operations will be covered within specified intervals.

(4) Inspection reports. Inspection reports should include, among other things:

- (a) Discussion of unusually good performance or conditions calling for commendation.
- (b) Discussion of unsatisfactory performance or conditions and their causes.
- (c) Discussion of problems and difficulties reported by field officials and their suggestions for improvement of programs and their administration.
- (d) Recommendation as to corrective action needed, the extent to which the responsible official plans to take such action, and the time schedule to be followed.

As a general rule and except in cases where circumstances may indicate otherwise, inspection reports, or at least the main findings to be reported, should be discussed with the field official in charge of the unit under inspection before the report is submitted.

After an inspection is completed, specific plans should be made to take the steps that the inspection shows are required, including training and other assistance needed by field officials. These plans, insofar as possible, should be developed cooperatively with the field officials concerned.

(5) The administrator must "go see." Reports by other people cannot give the administrator the first-hand knowledge that he must have of the agency's operations and personnel. He must "go see." A plan should be adopted under which the administrator and other headquarters officials and functional experts each inspect annually a representative number of field offices and stations. These officials should not limit their visits to major offices, but should go down to the bottom operating level in the field.

Field officials and their staffs should develop a similar program covering offices, stations, and field operations within their areas.

e. Follow-up.

The purpose of obtaining information regarding progress of operations is, of course, to provide a basis for corrective action where necessary. Information and follow-up are the essential ingredients of control. Information obtained through reports and inspection should be analyzed and presented to the administrator in such a way as to indicate basic causes of unsatisfactory progress, as well as to meet other management needs, and follow-up should be directed at correction of these causes rather than at surface manifestations.

It is also important that follow-up be maintained on decisions and directions in order to make sure that action decided upon is actually carried out.

f. Production control.

When the practice of scheduling operations is followed, a control system should usually be installed which will indicate whether or not operations are on schedule. Various systems can be devised depending on the nature of the operations. A Gantt chart can sometimes be used to show graphically actual production in relation to schedule.

The control system should also provide a basis for actions to minimize fluctuations in work load (by regulating the timing of work coming in, maintaining a controlled backlog, and so forth) and to balance manpower assigned to each step of the production process so as to avoid either bottlenecks or overstaffing.

SECTION 5. MAINTAINING VITALITY

14. The organization's programs should be adequately explained to the Congress and the public. Employees who deal with the public should receive training in principles of human relations.

a. Informing the Congress.

The Congress, if it is to meet its constitutional responsibilities, must be informed about the organization's programs and progress. In addition to appropriation hearings, other and more frequent means might be developed to keep Members informed, in order to avoid the difficulties that so often spring from misunderstanding. These means should be worked out in cooperation with the Secretary's office and the appropriate Congressional Committees.

b. Informing the public.

Farmers and processors and distributors of agricultural products need to have a good understanding of the Department's programs in order to make best use of them. At the same time, since democratic government requires an informed electorate, urban residents at large should also have a general understanding of the Department's programs and operations. Field employees can do much to explain Department programs to the public.

c. Application of principles of human relations in serving the public.

Careful attention should be given to the observance of principles of good human relations in dealing with members of the public. If, for example, someone must be requested to take action required by a regulation or administrative decision or if a request must be denied, the person involved is due a courteous and understanding explanation.

The example set by the administrator is undoubtedly the most effective means of developing a tradition of fair and courteous treatment of the public. If he is deeply concerned about the observance of principles of good human relations in dealing with the public and with employees, it is likely that those who work under him will be similarly concerned.

Role playing coupled with discussion sessions has been used by some agencies to help train employees in principles of human relations.

d. Correspondence, telephone calls, visitors.

Delay in answering correspondence not only may result in serious inconvenience to the public but also creates an impression of inefficiency and lack of courtesy. It is important, therefore, that correspondence be answered promptly. Replies should give the information requested, should be easy to understand, and should be courteous and expressive of real interest in the problems raised by the persons to whom they are addressed.

The same principles apply to the handling of telephone calls and the reception of visitors.

Periodic surveys, on a sampling basis, should be made to the length of time taken to answer correspondence, as well as the quality of outgoing letters. Action, including training measures, should be taken to bring about improvements that the surveys show are needed.

Employees who receive telephone calls and visits from members of the public not only should be trained in courtesy but also should have a good working knowledge of the functions of agencies other than their own, so as to be able to refer calls and visitors to the proper place.

15. Means should be developed to counteract tendencies toward ingrowing.

As the late William A. Jump pointed out, the web of external interrelationships within which the Department of Agriculture formulates and administers its programs helps effectively to protect the Department against tendencies toward ingrowing. Nevertheless, we need to be continually alert to counteract the natural human trait of self-satisfaction, to stimulate new ideas, and to develop means of broadening the familiarity of Department administrators with the needs and viewpoints of those whom they serve directly and of the public at large. Many governmental programs necessarily carry with them authority over the public, and this makes it all the more important that administrators impose upon themselves the duty of tempering official attitudes with outside thinking.

The practical significance of this is the need to find ways by which officials can have direct exposure to the thinking of the public as it relates to the programs and administration of their organizations. Some suggestions as to how this can be done have already been made, for example, through reviews of program objectives by groups including outside representation, use of advisory committees, and occasional employment of men from outside the career service. Other methods include such devices as interchange of personnel with universities, businesses, or other organizations, participation in community organizations, and even such an informal matter as making friends among persons not employed by government. Liberal use of consultants can also be helpful.

16. Continuing attention should be given to improvement of all areas of management.

a. The responsibilities of operating people and specialists.

Continuing attention should be given to the improvement of all areas of management. While there is need for specialists in some areas, the bulk of the improvements must be made by the operating people themselves. They should be required to review management practices periodically, and should be given assistance with respect to methods of analyzing management problems and developing improvements.

In this task, specialists concerned with personnel, finance, property, and information will normally be responsible for assisting the administrator and other operating officials in improving management in these areas. Organization and methods specialists can be of particular assistance in other areas of management, including studies of operating methods, organization, planning and scheduling techniques, direction, communication, control, and coordination.

b. The contribution of employees.

There is a wealth of ideas in the minds of employees as to improvements that might be made, particularly in the operations of their immediate organizational units.^{1/} However, employees cannot be expected to contribute all they can in this respect unless they feel sure that when they devise better methods or better organization, they will not be injured by losing their jobs or ending up in less desirable positions. They must also feel their suggestions are wanted and that constructive efforts will be properly and fairly recognized.

For these reasons, a general policy should be followed of attempting to place within the Department employees whose positions are adversely affected by changes in organization or methods. Sometimes retaining may be necessary. The organization, of course, must be free to develop and change to keep pace with changes in public needs and programs and to adopt more efficient methods of operation. Its growth must not be hampered by reluctance to disturb individual employees.

At the same time, however, if careful attention is not given to the interests of employees, the organization may suffer seriously from lowered morale, unwillingness to propose improvements, and lessened cooperation with management. If we want employees to be ready to suggest and accept changes, they must have confidence that they will be satisfactorily placed if at all possible.

c. Improvement of methods.

Experience shows that many improvements in methods can usually be made in any organization in which systematic reviews have not previously been undertaken, and that substantial savings can often be effected.

One approach in the improvement of methods is for all employees and supervisors to be given simple, specific training in methods improvement. A brief outline or guide can be used to help them analyze the work, how it can best be done, and who should do it. Following the theory of participation discussed earlier, each supervisor, beginning at the top of the

^{1/} "For that matter, the average employer has little conception of the wealth of imagination and ingenuity lying untapped in the heads of the workmen." (Russel W. Davenport in "Enterprise for Everyman," quoted in USDA Management Bulletin No. 3, p. 96.)

organization, can then review jointly with his subordinates methods which are now being used, possibilities for improvement, problems which may limit the output of the unit, and need for coordination of activities with those of other units.

Another plan that has proved effective is the employment of a qualified person to act as assistant to the head of a unit for the purpose of discovering opportunities for improvement through joint discussion with employees. The assistant talks with each employee in turn to find out what job uncertainties or difficulties may exist and what suggestions for improvement he may have. Problems and ideas that arise from these discussions are worked out jointly in cooperation with the employee, the supervisor, and others who may be concerned. If an atmosphere of confidence is established, this plan can result in turning up a great many matters which interfere with maximum output. It not only draws out the ideas and suggestions of employees, but at the same time gives them a share in the process of management and, when skillfully handled, makes an important contribution to the improvement of morale.^{1/}

Another method is the use of task forces composed of both operating and staff people to study particular areas or problems. Management-employee committees may be helpful. Still other approaches for enlisting the participation of operating people can be used.

d. The role of the organization and methods analyst.

The job of the organization and methods specialist is to give continuing thought and attention to improvement of methods, procedures, organization, and other areas of management not assigned to other administrative specialists. Like any specialist, he develops skill in his field and is able to see possibilities for improvement and to suggest short cuts that might not occur to persons who are immediately concerned with operating details unless they are trained in this skill. He can serve as an unbiased observer who brings in a fresh viewpoint. He must have marked ability in working with people. His relationship to other administrative specialists needs to be clearly defined.

The main effort of the organization and methods analyst should be to assist operating officials in bringing about improvements. He should find out what problems are causing concern to them and concentrate upon helping to solve these problems. Otherwise he is likely to find that his work has limited acceptance.

^{1/} See Henry H. Farquhar, "A Technique for Enlisting Employee Cooperation in the Improvement of Administration," in Management Bulletin No. 3, Understanding Objectives, p. 79. Other methods are discussed in the appendix to this bulletin, as well as in Management Bulletin No. 2, "Methods of Conducting Management Surveys."

Nor is there likely to be much acceptance of recommendations which the organization and methods analyst develops alone. Operating officials must participate in the process of thinking the problem through, so that the final conclusion is one which they accept as their own. In this way, they also improve their ability to analyze and solve their managerial problems. This will not be the case if independent management studies are made without the participation of operating officials.

Each major agency might profitably employ one or more persons skilled in organization and methods analysis. An agency which has many small field offices with similar operations should also give consideration to the employment of specialists who can assist these offices in establishing good office management practices and in installing standard operating methods.

Responsibility should also be assigned for giving continuing attention to control and improvement of reports and forms.

e. Periodic comprehensive management reviews.

In addition to day-to-day studies, comprehensive reviews of all aspects of management should be made periodically. Such reviews should cover the entire organization, from the top to the final operating level in the field. It is usually desirable to schedule different parts of the organization for review at different times, so that the task becomes more or less a continuous process.

As practiced in the Forest Service, job load analysis consists of periodic and systematic review of work requirements in individual positions at all levels. This review involves: (a) the establishment of a reasonably attainable objective in each main field of work, (b) a breakdown of each activity into the component jobs which must be performed to attain the objective, (c) the establishment of standards for each component job in terms of quality, quantity, methods, and frequency needed to attain the objective, and (d) a determination of the time required to do each job properly. The analyses aim to provide a sound basis for (1) work plans and schedules, (2) budget requirements, (3) equalizing work load, (4) keeping abreast of changing conditions, (5) making the work as interesting as practicable to the employees, (6) determining training needs, and (7) establishing yardsticks by which to appraise performance.

Job load analysis is the key to the scientific management approach in the Forest service. While different approaches may, of course be used in different agencies, periodic analysis of the work of individual positions and units is essential.

Management reviews should be a cooperative undertaking by both operating officials and administrative specialists. The work of the latter should be integrated through use of a task force or other device in order to avoid undue interference with operations because of piecemeal reviews by specialists in different fields.

f. Schedule for improvement of management.

Just as there should be an annual work schedule for program operations at each organization level, so likewise there should be an annual schedule for improvement of management at each level. This should state, for each segment of management, problems needing attention and activities which should be strengthened, objectives for the year, and what is to be done and in what order to reach these objectives.

17. The administrator should be interested in administrative research.

The administrator should not be satisfied with rule of thumb in judging the organization's programs or management. He should be interested in finding out, through systematic study, how the programs and their management can be improved. The Department of Agriculture is dedicated, as one of its major objectives, to research to improve crop and livestock production; it should also be concerned with research to find the best answers to program and management problems.

In some cases, arrangements might be made with universities or other research institutions to study particular problems. In the case of common management problems, studies made in cooperation with other Department or government agencies may be indicated. Many other methods can be used.

SECTION 6. THE ADMINISTRATOR'S RESPONSIBILITY TO REPRESENT THE PUBLIC INTEREST

18. The administrator, whatever his level, has a responsibility for representing and safeguarding the public interest. He must be an impartial servant of the entire Nation.

What is in the public interest is often extremely difficult to discern clearly, since many governmental actions are directed toward groups rather than the population as a whole.

There are no ready-made tests for gauging the public interest. Often it may be easier to determine what is not in the public interest than what is --to see, for example, that a proposed action would benefit one group at the expense of others or the present generation at the expense of the future, would weaken the national economy or national defense, and so on.

In the final analysis, the administrator's responsibility to represent the public interest becomes a matter of his ability to see things whole, of his integrity, and of his courage to do what he thinks right. He must, therefore, be a man of high moral principle. He must also have, or acquire, a breadth of interest and knowledge which will enable him to see the effects of his actions upon the present and future life of the Nation.

The administrator's responsibility in this regard, as in all others, must be exercised within the framework of our constitutional principles. These principles require, first, a genuine concern for the rights and interests of individuals in the conduct of public functions. The government exists for the people, as a whole and as individuals, not the people for the government. Second, programs must be administered in keeping with the intent and spirit of the laws that established them. Finally, the administrator, whatever his level, must recognize the responsibilities and authority of, and be fully loyal to, the administration which the people have placed in office. These are fundamentals of our democratic system.

CHECK LIST

SECTION 1. THE ADMINISTRATOR'S RESPONSIBILITY FOR GOOD MANAGEMENT

1. Does the administrator give personal attention to the task of seeing that the essentials of good management are understood and observed throughout the organization? (Page 1)

SECTION 2. PLANNING

2. Are periodic appraisals undertaken to make sure that the organization's programs meet public needs? (Page 2)

- a. Are advisory committees or other devices used in order to give persons affected by the programs a share in developing and evaluating them?

- b. Are programs adjusted to differences in local conditions?

3. Have long-range objectives, goals, and plans been established? (Page 3)

- a. What processes are used in developing objectives, goals, and plans and in decision-making generally? Is adequate attention given to the collection and analysis of facts as a basis for plans and decisions?

- b. In formulating plans, is adequate attention given to inter-relationships and coordination of operations?

4. Are work programs scheduled on an annual basis? (Page 5)

- a. Are annual goals established?

- b. Are the tasks necessary to accomplish these goals identified?

- c. Are work schedules prepared at all organization levels?

5. Have standard policies, standard methods, time standards, and quality standards been established where feasible? (Page 6)

- a. How were these standards established? Were they based on adequate study?

6. Is the budget used as a management tool in planning and coordinating programs? (Page 7)

- a. In preparing the budget, are programs reviewed for the purpose of seeing that functions of high priority, in terms of public need, are given emphasis?

- b. Is attention given to the relationship of benefits and costs?

SECTION 3. ORGANIZATION, MEN, AND MATERIALS

7. Is there an effective organization structure? (Page 8)

a. Have the purposes and functions of the organization and each unit been clearly determined?

b. Is there clear-cut assignment of functions and responsibilities to organizational units?

(1) Are closely related operations grouped in the same unit, insofar as feasible?

(2) Is there any duplication or overlapping of functions?

c. Has the administrator delegated authority to the extent necessary to permit vigorous management?

(1) Do subordinates know clearly what targets they should be aiming at, what authority they have and what they do not have, and what is expected in the way of results?

(2) Are these principles also observed at other organizational levels?

(3) Do field officials have adequate authority so that they are able to meet local problems promptly?

d. Does each person know to whom he reports and who reports to him?

(1) Are there any instances where an employee reports to more than one person?

e. Are there any instances where too many or too few persons report to one supervisor?

f. If the agency does not have a unified type of field organization, is there any lack of coordination resulting in inefficiency or inconvenience to the public?

(1) Have the respective responsibilities of functional units at headquarters and line officials in the field been clearly defined and differentiated and satisfactory relationships established?

g. Does the administrator have the staff assistance he needs?

(1) Is there adequate staff work in preparation for major decisions?

(2) Do staff units work closely with operating officials?

(3) Do services provided by staff or service units to operating units adequately meet the latter's needs?

(4) Are staff activities making their maximum possible contribution to the advancement of the organization's programs?

8. Is the organization so staffed that it is capable of doing an excellent job of public service? (Page 13)

a. Are positions of major responsibility filled with men of outstanding ability?

b. Are at least some young people of very high ability recruited each year?

c. Is there a program for discovering and developing employees' abilities?

(1) Are supervisors selected with an eye to their managerial responsibilities?

d. Are employees at all levels properly trained for their jobs?

(1) Is there a plan for appraising the performance and management training needs of officials having supervisory responsibilities?

(2) What methods are used for training officials in management essentials and skills?

e. Are group and management-employee relations favorable?

f. What is the level of morale and esprit-de-corps in the agency as a whole and in each organization unit?

9. Are employees provided with the property and equipment needed to produce maximum output at minimum cost? (Page 18)

a. Is someone responsible for giving continuing study to possibilities for increasing efficiency through use of equipment and other types of property?

b. Is property utilization tied in with program scheduling?

c. Have property utilization and replacement standards been established?

d. Are property control records and inventories used as management tools to insure the best possible utilization of property and to prevent accumulation in excess of needs?

(1) Is there periodic inspection of property for these purposes?

e. Is adequate attention given to filing and records problems?

SECTION 4. DIRECTION, COORDINATION, CONTROL

10. Is the organization effectively directed? (Page 20)
 - a. What approaches are used to develop the organization into an alert and energetic working team?
 - b. Are staff meetings held regularly to discuss operating problems and what to do about them? Are these meetings well handled?
 - c. In what other ways do employees participate in the task of managing and organization?
 - d. Are decisions made as promptly as is feasible? Are those concerned informed clearly as to what has been decided and the reasons for and purpose of the decision?
11. Is there good down-and-up communication in the organization? (Page 21)
 - a. Do employees have a good understanding of what the organization as a whole is trying to accomplish and how their work contributes to the total job?
 - b. Are employees kept currently informed of major developments and problems in the organization?
 - c. What methods are used to encourage employees to contribute their knowledge and ideas? Is there an effective way for the ideas and experience of field employees to reach top management?
12. Are the organization's operations effectively coordinated, both internally and externally? (Page 23)
 - a. What methods are used for this purpose?
 - b. Is attention given to coordination in the planning stages?
13. Does the administrator exercise effective control over operations? (Page 24)
 - a. What methods have been developed to provide him with information necessary for effective control?
 - (1) Does this information show whether operations are meeting established schedules and standards?
 - (2) Are narrative reports used to inform the administrator of progress made and problems being encountered?

- (3) Are sampling methods used where feasible to measure operations?
 - (4) Are budget allotments used to help insure adherence to work plans and schedules?
 - (5) Is the accounting system set up in such a way that it provides the administrator information he needs for control purposes?
 - (6) Are cost accounting and work measurements systems used where feasible?
 - (7) Is there an internal audit system?
 - (8) Are periodic reviews made to weed out reports that are not essential?
- b. Are operations inspected regularly against established objectives, policies, plans, schedules, and standards?
- (1) What are the objectives of inspection?
 - (2) Is the inspection system working satisfactorily, particularly in terms of discovering underlying causes of any unsatisfactory progress?
 - (3) Do the inspectors obtain the suggestions of employees for improvement of programs and their administration?
 - (4) Is a plan for improvement developed, after inspection in cooperation with the official in charge of the office or unit concerned?
 - (5) Does this plan provide for training and other assistance needed by employees?
- c. Do the administrator and other top officials annually inspect a representative number of field offices, going down to the bottom operating level?
- d. What system is used to control scheduled operations?

SECTION 5. MAINTAINING VITALITY

14. Are the organization's programs adequately explained to the Congress and the public? (Page 28)
- a. Do employees who deal with the public receive training in principles of human relations?

b. Is attention given to the efficient and courteous handling of correspondence, phone calls, and visitors?

c. Are periodic surveys made of the time taken to answer correspondence and of the quality of outgoing letters?

d. Do employees who receive telephone calls and visitors have a good working knowledge of the functions of agencies and offices other than their own?

15. What methods are used to bring in new viewpoints, stimulate ideas, and insure that officials are acquainted with the needs and thinking of those whom the organization serves? (Page 29)

16. Is continuing and systematic attention given to improvement of all areas of management? (Page 29)

a. Are operating people asked to review methods, organization, and other areas of management periodically?

(1) Are they given help as to the best way of going about the task of analyzing procedures and problems and developing improvements?

(2) Have approaches been developed which succeed in encouraging employees to contribute their ideas for improvements? Are good ideas utilized?

b. What approaches are used for improvement of methods?

(1) Does the agency employ organization and methods analysts? How helpful have they been?

c. Are the staff officials concerned with personnel, finance, property, and information active in the improvement of management functions in these areas?

d. Are comprehensive management reviews made periodically?

(1) What methods are used for this purpose?

(2) How often are such reviews made?

(3) What actions have been taken as a result?

3. Are annual management improvement schedules prepared at each organizational level?

17. To what extent does the organization conduct administrative research, e.g., studies of the effectiveness of programs, best methods of administration, etc.? (Page 33)

